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INDIANA  
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TEACHERS  
COLLEGE

*The Teachers College*

# JOURNAL

NUMBER 1

VOLUME XXVI

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HAUTE,  
INDIANA

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# CONTENTS

Public Relations — A Challenge	Editorial
Legal Authority For The Regulation Of Pupil Conduct Fred Swalls, Professor of Education, Indiana State Teachers College Terre Haute, Indiana	Page 2
Design for Living Harry E. Elder, Registrar, Indiana State Teachers College Terre Haute, Indiana	Page 6
What Needs To Be Done About Secondary Education? Dr. Ernest L. Welborn, Emeritus Professor of Education and Director Of Research, Indiana State Teachers College Indianapolis, Indiana	Page 8
The Impact of Population Changes on Our Citizenship Teaching Hall Bartlett, Materials Director of the Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York	Page 10

The Teachers College Journal seeks to present competent discussions of professional problems in education and toward this end restricts its contributing personnel to those of training and experience in the field. The Journal does not engage in re-publication practice, in belief that previously published material, however creditable, has already been made available to the professional public through its original publication.

Manuscripts concerned with controversial issues are welcomed, with the express understanding that all such issues are published without editorial bias or discrimination.

Articles are presented on the authority of their writers, and do not necessarily commit the Journal to points of views so expressed. At all times, the Journal reserves the right to refuse publication if in the opinion of the Editorial Board an author has violated standards of professional ethics or journalistic presentation.

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## OCTOBER COVER

Student teacher in the Laboratory School reads a story to her first-grade class.

Picture is used through the courtesy of the 1954 Sycamore year-book.

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VOL. XXVI

OCTOBER, 1954

NUMBER 1

THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL



## *Public Relations -- A Challenge*

In recent years the public schools have been faced with a number of significant problems which necessitate an improved program of public relations on the part of the schools themselves. One of the most pressing of these problems centers around the current wave of attacks against the schools.

The popular magazines have been carrying of late a large number of articles dealing with the weaknesses, inadequacies and faults of our public schools. The articles deal with such topics as "failure to teach the 3 R's," "lack of discipline in the schools," "undesirable textbooks," "inadequate curriculums," and many others. The writers of these articles have an uncanny talent of finding an isolated case of an undesirable situation in the public schools and presenting it in such a way that all public schools appear to possess the same undesirable conditions. The reading public is made to feel that all schools, everywhere, are a sorry lot and are reaching deplorable levels. Even in their own locales where before they have been well pleased with their school systems, the patrons begin to have suspicions.

People in education—teachers, administrators, and professional educators—are aware of some inadequacies in some schools. But on the whole, they know that our public schools are doing an outstanding job of educating the younger generations in our democratic society. Yet educators are doing little to make these facts quite clear to the public.

Then too, we have been faced with the problems of teacher shortages and lack of adequate school buildings for the past few years. True, some buildings have been constructed, but more buildings have become obsolete than have been replaced each year. According to one report there is a shortage of approximately 125,000 teachers this year and there is a million and a half more pupils this year than last. Overcrowding is worse than it has ever been before. And then peak in students attending public schools will not come until 1960. We require more teachers and more classrooms!

The public has been informed about this growing emergency through various sources—newspapers, radio, etc.—

yet this same public has been content to sit back and do little or nothing to alleviate the conditions. Evidently the lead in these matters must of necessity come from some other source—namely, the educators themselves.

We have mentioned only three of many basic issues which are facing public education. To meet the issues squarely, it becomes apparent that the public school people themselves—teachers, administrators, professional educators—are going to have to assume the roles of leaders in more and better public relations. School personnel with a sincere desire to fulfill their responsibilities must of necessity accept the challenge now before them. Too long we have been content to let the school system move its own way without our active participation. The time has come for a concerted program of public relations designed to eliminate or at least improve the current problems of modern education. Public relations *per se* will not improve the picture, but will go a long way in producing an enlightened public which in turn will materially aid in the solution of our problems.

Charles Hardaway,  
Editor



# Legal Authority For The Regulation Of Pupil Conduct

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One of the most important characteristics of an efficient school is a well regulated body of pupils. Although the regulation of pupil conduct involves discipline, it is more than that. It is a system of school government that safeguards the well being of children as well as provides an orderly environment for learning.

In the regulation of pupil conduct, it is highly desirable to affect such regulation through a desire on the part of the pupils to be good school citizens. Yet, any experienced teacher knows that some of the control must be imposed by the school. Actions on the part of the school in the government of pupils must be consistent with the law and not in conflict with it.

Regulation of pupil conduct in the total school program is a complex and difficult problem, and some important reasons for this are:

1. Teachers and principal often find it difficult to reach complete agreement and understanding concerning the regulation of pupil conduct. The principal must work through the teachers, and their help and understanding is essential to a well governed school.

2. The school program is no longer confined to the classroom. In many schools, it is extending into the surrounding community and even beyond. School excursions are becoming increasingly popular.

3. Many school buildings and playgrounds are over crowded.

4. Present day automotive traffic is a constant danger to children traveling on school buses or on foot.

5. The nature of the instructional program is changing. Learning by doing is coming into prominence as an accepted teaching procedure. Such activity provides more possibilities for pupil accidents than does the highly traditional methods of instruction. Although

the newer program is based in sound principles of educational psychology, it presents many new problems in the regulation of pupil conduct.

6. Conflicts in social culture exist in many communities as a result of the migration of people. These conflicts are usually reflected in the classrooms.

Because of the increased responsibility for the learning and safety of pupils, the task of maintaining an orderly school is quite difficult, and teachers today are very much aware of this fact. They are asking about their legal authority and responsibility in controlling pupil conduct. Also, they are becoming increasingly concerned about personal liability that may be incurred because of pupil injury.

## Legal Status of the Public School Teacher

The term teacher as used here means any properly certified, principal, superintendent, or supervisor.

The courts have held that a public school teacher is a public employee and not a public official. While the distinction between a public officer and a public employee is difficult to trace at times, several courts have shown that an employment does not permit one to exercise a right of sovereign power or to exercise authority of a governmental nature.<sup>1</sup> The teacher is an agent of government, but not an official of the government.

The public school teacher works in a matrix of school laws, and the elements of this legal frame work originate in the state's constitutional and statutory provisions, in judicial decisions, and in administrative rules and regulations.

The hierarchy of school administration in a state places the teacher in a position subordinate to the principal, the superintendent, and the local school

<sup>1</sup>Remmlein, M. K., *School Law*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950, p. 14.

board or township trustee. It is important to understand the position of the teacher in this administrative structure, because the authority of the teacher is commensurate with his rank in the structure.

One basic principle of law followed by courts is that the court will inquire into the right of the teacher to make the decision but not into the wisdom of the decision.<sup>2</sup> Teachers must be sure that they have the right to make decisions that they make.

The courts will only penalize teachers for lawful decisions when those decisions are characterized by improper motives, arbitrariness, or maliciousness that result in illegal actions. Only in such cases will the courts substitute their judgment for that of the teachers.

## Legal Status of the Student Teacher

Student teachers have legal status when arrangements for their student teaching have been approved by the board of education. This was established by a court decision in West Virginia in 1914, *Speddon v. Board of Education*, 74 W. Va. 181.<sup>3</sup>

It appears, however, from this case, that student teachers have no authority in management or control. When the supervising teacher leaves the student teacher in charge of the class, the legality of the supervision status of the student teacher seems to slip into uncertainty. This is a situation not thoroughly defined by the courts or the statutes.

## Legal Relationship of Teacher To the Pupil

The courts have consistently held that teacher stands "in loco parentis" to his pupils, that is, the teacher stands in the

<sup>2</sup>Cohler, Milton J., "The Law, the Teacher, and the Child," *American School Board Journal*, October, 1951, vol. 123, p. 21.

<sup>3</sup>Cohler, Milton J., "The Child, the Teacher, and the Law," *American School Board Journal*, November, 1951, vol. 123, p. 40.

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place of the parent while the child is under the jurisdiction of the school. However, the teacher may not exercise as much authority over the child as the parent does, because the teacher must act within the limits of the school's responsibility and authority as prescribed by the state.

The teacher is certified to teach and therefore he is assumed to possess knowledge of child growth and development. He is expected then to deal more wisely and judiciously with children than typical parents would.

### Relationship of the Regulation of Pupil Conduct to Teacher Liability

There is a definite relationship between regulation of pupil conduct and the tort liability of teachers. Almost all of the court cases involving the liability of teachers have become legal controversies because of the results of regulation of pupil conduct.

A tort is defined as a legal wrong committed upon the person or property of another, independent of contract. When a person breaches a contract and is sued for so doing, the action is in contract. When a person is injured in body, property, or reputation and seeks redress in the courts, the action is in tort. When an individual is wronged, the suit is usually filed in the civil court and most school controversies are tried in civil courts. If the state has been wronged, suit is filed in criminal court, and the state attempts to prosecute the defendant. Assault and battery suits, for example, usually are tried in criminal courts. Some school suits involving corporal punishment have been tried in criminal courts under assault and battery charges.

### Conditions Under Which Teachers Are Liable in Tort for Their Acts

The liability of teachers in tort for their acts depends upon the common law principles of negligence. Common law consists of legal principles derived from usage and custom or from court decisions affirming usage and custom.

Remmlein says that "negligence at law is any conduct which falls below standard for the protection of others

against unreasonable risk or harm."<sup>4</sup> Negligence may be acts performed illegally, or legal acts performed improperly, or acts that should have been performed but were not performed. Liability is conditioned by the nature of the results and the character of the conduct producing the results.

The test of foreseeability is commonly applied by courts to determine negligence. If a reasonably prudent person could have foreseen the harmful consequences of the act, then the one responsible for the act was negligent.

A common defense set up in a tort suit is that of contributory negligence. Contributory negligence is the conduct of the injured person which was a contributing factor in bringing about the person's injury. The standard of performance used for children is that degree of care which most children of like age, intelligence, and experience would ordinarily exercise under similar circumstances.

### Legal Guides for the Regulation Of Pupil Conduct

The board of school trustees has the authority to establish rules and regulations for the purpose of controlling pupil conduct so long as those rules are not in conflict with the constitution, statutes, or administrative rules of a higher agency. In the same sense, teachers have authority to establish rules to regulate the conduct of pupils in the school.

In *Fertich v. Michener*, 111 Ind. 472 (1887), the court not only established the legal principle that school officers have the legal power to adopt rules for the government of the school, but the court also pointed out that it was not necessary for all school regulations to be in writing and made a matter of record. Also, the court stated that every act, order, or direction affecting the management of the regulations need not be confirmed by a formal note, but any reasonable rule adopted by a superintendent or a teacher, not inconsistent with some statute or rule prescribed by higher authority, was binding upon the pupils.

<sup>4</sup>Remmlein, M. K., *School Law*, p. 152.

The court went ahead to say that in the enforcement of school rules due regard must be given to the health, comfort, age, and mental as well as physical condition of pupils. All circumstances involved in the application of a rule to a pupil should be considered. Pupils that are known to have some mental or physical infirmity may require relaxation of some rules.

In regard to the reasonableness of rules, the court said, "A school regulation must . . . be not only reasonable in itself, but its enforcement must also be reasonable in the light of existing circumstances."

*Fertich v. Michener* was one of the earliest cases involving the right of school officials and teachers to adopt and enforce rules of government for a school. It has been used as a precedent case in a number of other states.

### Authority of the Teacher to Administer Punishment

There are a variety of punishments that are administered by teachers at various times. Some are mild and some are severe. Punishment concerning which there have been judicial decisions by appellate and state supreme courts are detention after school, suspension, expulsion, corporal punishment, and requiring pupils to pay for the destruction of school property.

**Detention of Pupils After School Hours.**—Detaining pupils for a period of time after school is dismissed for the day is a common form of punishment. In some schools today they call it the seventh hour. Authority for such punishment was determined in the case of *Fertich v. Michener*. The court upheld the teacher's right to detain pupils after school as punishment for some misconduct or shortcoming.

It must be kept in mind that detaining pupils after school in 1887 was not complicated by the transportation of pupils on school buses or by the regulation of pupil traffic through safety patrols.

**Suspension and Expulsion.**—Pupils may be suspended from school for the

infraction of reasonable rules for a short period of time until certain conditions are met. The teacher, principal, or superintendent has the authority to do this, but action of the board of education or the township trustee is necessary to expel the child.

American Jurisprudence states that it is the responsibility of every principal or teacher to maintain discipline and order in the school, and that he does have the power to exclude from school a child for breaching any reasonable rules of discipline, or for any conduct injurious to the morals of other pupils or the government of the school.<sup>5</sup> Such exclusion is subject to review by the trustee or board of education.

Remmlein contends that when a child within the compulsory school age is expelled from school that the parents must send the child to a private school.<sup>6</sup>

School law in Indiana is not clear on this particular point because no case seems to have reached the Indiana Appellate or Supreme Courts involving this issue.

In 1944, the Indiana Attorney General rendered an opinion on who had the right to exclude a child from a public school. He stated that the school teacher, principal, or superintendent, unless prevented by a rule of the township trustee or board of education had the legal right to suspend or exclude a child from a public school, subject to the right of review.<sup>7</sup>

With this information, it seems that the Indiana law is not clear on whether or not a child may be expelled from a public school when he is within the compulsory school age. This appears to be the only safe interpretation to make.

**Corporal Punishment.**—The courts generally have established the principle that a teacher has the right to administer corporal punishment in the absence of prohibitory statutes or school board

regulations. The courts have held that when corporal punishment is administered the cause must be sufficient, the instrument suitable, and the punishment should be done with kindness, prudence, and propriety becoming to a teacher.

The latest case involving corporal punishment brought to the attention of teachers was reported by Lee Garber in the *Nations Schools*.<sup>8</sup> Mr. Garber reported on the case of *State v. Lutz*, which was an Ohio case.

The case is important because it reflects the courts' thinking on corporal punishment in modern times. We have had few cases reach the higher courts involving corporal punishment in the last 20 years.

In the case *State v. Lutz*, 113 N.E. (2d) 757, Ohio, action in assault and battery was brought against a principal who paddled an eleven-year-old boy. It was alleged that the boy while on the way home from school, threw a rock which hit a small girl and knocked off her glasses. The boy then "fibbed" to the principal about the incident.

The principal paddled the boy which led to the discoloration of his bottom. The boy appeared to have been an epileptic and the mother testified that the boy had three seizures after the paddling. The day after the paddling, the father and brother of the boy took him to the school superintendent and protested the action. The superintendent did nothing. Following this, the father and brother took the boy to the county juvenile court and protested the action to the boy's probation officer, who also took no action. Then the father filed an affidavit in police court.

Two months later at a trial the principal was convicted of assault and battery by a municipal judge without a jury. The defendant appealed to the court of common pleas and the judgment of the lower court was reversed

and the principal was held not guilty.

Before giving a decision the court of common pleas canvassed the question of corporal punishment and set forth the following legal principles.

1. The teacher stands in loco parentis and acts in a quasi-judicial capacity and is not liable for an error in judgment in the matter of punishment.

2. The teacher's responsibility attaches from home to school and school to home.

3. There is a presumption of correctness of the teacher's actions.

4. There is a presumption that the teacher acts in good faith.

5. Mere excessive or severe punishment on the part of a teacher does not constitute a crime unless it is of such a nature as to produce or threaten lasting or permanent injury, or unless the state has shown that it was either administered with malice or without just cause. Either must be shown beyond reasonable doubt.

#### **Pupil Destruction of School Property.**

—Sometimes young people destroy school property in the normal run of the school's activities, and not infrequently principals or teachers require the youngsters to pay for the property destroyed. This is done as a form of punishment and as a method of replacement. The Indiana Supreme Court in 1888, *State v. Vanderbilt*, 116 Ind. 11, ruled that teachers of public schools have no power to make rules requiring pupils to pay for property destroyed by them and to enforce such rules by chastisement.

#### **Regulating Pupil Conduct Away From the School Premises**

The question of the extent of control that the school has over pupils away from the school premises has been raised by many teachers and parents. The courts have answered this question through rulings in a number of cases.

One of the legal principles reviewed by the court in *State v. Lutz* was that

<sup>5</sup>American Jurisprudence, vol. 47, p. 431, section 180.

<sup>6</sup>Remmlein, M. K., *School Law*, 1950, p. 234.

<sup>7</sup>Opinions of Indiana Attorney General, 1944, p. 451.

<sup>8</sup>Garber, Lee, "The Teacher's Right to Administer Corporal Punishment," *Nations Schools*, vol. 53, no. 2, February, 1954, pp. 83-84.



the teacher was responsible for the child between home and school. This principle should invoke a great deal of caution when arranging for the special dismissal of a child, that is, one who is sent home during the school day because of illness, or one who requests dismissal during the day for other reasons. Reasonable care to safeguard them on the trip home is the school's responsibility.

**Pupil Conduct on School Buses.**—Indiana transportation laws give the schools authority to regulate the conduct of pupils on school buses. The Indiana Appellate Court rendered a decision in 1901 on the assumption that the school may exercise jurisdiction over pupils when they are off the school premises. Numerous other court cases throughout the country have held to this assumption when the authority was exercised for the direct benefit of the school.

**Educational and Non-educational Activities.**—In Michigan, the state supreme court drew a distinction between the consequences of an educational activity in which a child was injured and a non-educational activity.<sup>9</sup> The teacher was not held liable for a child who was injured in watering an indoor plant as a part of the science instruction. In a Wisconsin case, a teacher was held liable when a student was injured in moving a piano.<sup>10</sup> The court held that the act was unauthorized by legislative grant of power. It was a non-educational act.

There are many implications in the Wisconsin case, because it is not uncommon for teachers to assign students to run errands for them in the school and occasionally children are assigned to messenger service which requires them to leave the school premises. Such practices should be held to a minimum and when they are resorted to they should be carried out with close supervision and great care.

### School Safety Patrol

One of the hazardous school activities that has emerged as a result of the automobile age is the safety patrol. In Indiana, we do not have statutory authorization for schools to organize and operate safety patrols and as yet there have been no controversies reaching the higher courts of Indiana involving the legality of safety patrols. New Jersey and Massachusetts have legalized the safety patrol by statute.

In 1929, the Indiana Attorney General gave an opinion concerning the authority of school officials to establish and operate safety patrols.<sup>11</sup> His opinion was that it was within the authority of school trustees, superintendents, or principals to organize safety patrols. However, he pointed out that the school officials could not be held liable in case of accident to one of the children in the operation of the system. He also pointed out that the services of patrolmen must be voluntary and with the consent of the parent or guardian.

On June 1, 1954, the Indiana Attorney General released an opinion on school safety patrols in which he reaffirmed many of the points set forth in the 1929 opinion.<sup>12</sup> However, he did discuss the practice of organizing and operating school safety patrols which seems to be a valuable contribution to this whole problem in Indiana.

The Indiana Attorney General pointed out that from legal standpoint, it is primarily a duty of the police department to provide for the safety of persons on the streets and highways. He stated that it was his understanding that most school safety patrols operate under a police officer assigned for that purpose with a delegation of some functions to the principal of the school and by him to a teacher assigned the duty of directing the safety patrol. School patrol officers do not attempt to make arrests, but report to school officials for disciplinary action viola-

tions by pupils and report to the police flagrant violations by motorists. The Attorney General said that most cities have adopted local ordinances to regulate the speed of motor vehicles in school areas and this action aids the school safety patrol.

It should be kept in mind that teachers who are directing school safety patrols and who are negligent in this capacity may be held liable in case of pupil injury. The Indiana Attorney General in his opinions of 1929 and 1954 did not say that under all circumstances teachers would not be liable.

When schools operate safety patrols they should do so with the cooperation of the local police department and they should exercise every precaution to safeguard school patrolmen. When schools are in rural areas they should seek the help of State police in the operation of the safety patrol.

### School Excursions

School excursions have become very popular in the last 20 years, and they are becoming more popular as time goes on. Some of the trips taken by students are arranged as a part of their classwork, and some of them are purely recreational.

What risks are taken by the teachers responsible for such trips? Is the school acting within the power granted it by the legislature in conducting and sponsoring school excursions?

Legislation and litigation on school excursions is indeed difficult to find. School excursions are being conducted by the thousands in a vacuum of legal authorization.

The school transportation laws of our State recognize that school buses may be used for the movement of school groups which are under the jurisdiction of the school. Is this implied authority? Only a court can answer that question with finality.

As popular as school excursions have become, it is about time that we have an attorney general's opinion on the whole problem. Also, we need statutory

<sup>9</sup>Gaincott v. Davis, 281 Mich. 515, (1937).

<sup>10</sup>State ex rel Rowe v. Board of Education, 63 Wis. 234.

<sup>11</sup>Opinions of Indiana Attorney General, 1929, p. 257.

<sup>12</sup>Indiana Attorney General's Official Opinion, no. 38, June 1, 1954, pp. 1-2.



authorization for the protection of our principals and teachers.

Remmlein in an article on school excursions cites only four court cases in the United States involving school excursions.<sup>13</sup>

In all four cases, pupils had been injured during school excursions. It was alleged in those suits that the injuries resulted because of the negligence of the company or its employees. In none of the cases did the pupils recover damages.

In one case the court said that if there was negligence it was on the part of the principal who took 30 boys at one time to a plant filled with danger.

Remmlein contends that in these four cases what constituted liability on the part of the teachers was a separate question. It so happened that the factory owners were sued and not the teachers who conducted the excursions.

One of the legal principles that emerged from these cases was that school groups visiting industrial plants are mere licensees or possibly even trespassers. They must accept the premises as they find them, and the owner is not obligated to deviate from the usual conduct of the work for the safety of the visitors.

### Summary

Most of the legal authority that teachers and school trustees possess for the regulation of pupil conduct has emerged from court cases. The courts have interpreted statutes and used common law to develop a set of legal principles upon which their many decisions are based.

There are sufficient legal principles to guide teachers in their actions in controlling pupil conduct in the routine affairs of the school.

However, in Indiana, legal authority for activities engaged in of a non-educational nature is not clear cut by either

<sup>13</sup>Remmlein, M. K., "Excursions are Often Hazardous," *Nations Schools*, 27:55; May, patrol and many school excursions fall

## Design for Living

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"In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth."

### I.

No scientist, historian, mathematician, philosopher, or theologian has ever pretended to know anything about conditions which may have existed prior to the creation of heaven and earth. No great scholar has ever demonstrated that whatever exists now did not exist potentially from the "beginning" referred to in the first chapter of Genesis. This "beginning" is the source of whatever or whoever was, is or may be in the future, however distant this future may be.

From such reasoning it becomes evident that nothing is ever lost. Each fact, act, or thought occurs because it was potentially possible from the "beginning." This is true whether such

statutes or courts. The school safety patrol falls into this classification.

To engage in an activity not clearly authorized by the state amounts to taking unnecessary risks on the part of teachers who supervise those activities. For example, Indiana needs a statute which authorizes the establishment and operation of school safety patrols, and Indiana needs a statute authorizing both kinds of school excursions, those which are a part of the planned instructional program and those which are of a non-instructional nature.

The higher courts have consistently upheld the authority of teachers and school trustees to govern schools when the government was reasonable and not in conflict with statutes or regulations of higher authorities. Authority to regulate pupil conduct and responsibility for such regulation are inseparable in the eyes of the law.

facts, acts, or thoughts are constructive, destructive, or neutral in their effect upon the totality of the universe. Each human being—whether he be saint or sinner, giant or pigmy, healthful or sickly, is a result of the totality of his past heredity and environment.

From the preceding reasoning it is evident that each human being must carry a certain amount of responsibility for either the well-being or ill-being of every other person in his immediate environment; and each of these, in turn, influences others; and so forth, until the pebble dropped into the ocean of humanity by any person, however humble or great, has had its influence around the world and for all time to come—for good or for evil, for a positive or negative effect upon the eternity which lies ahead of us.

The thesis that each person now living or who may live at any time hereafter has already lived potentially from the "beginning" and will live eternally through others influenced by him, is supported by the leading thinkers and philosophers of all recorded time. Here are a few examples of what some of our predecessors believed:

1. Euripides (484 BC-406 BC): "Who knows but life be that which men call death, and death what men call life?" (Phrixus. Fragment 830)

2. Aristophanes (446 BC-380 BC): "Perhaps death is life, and life is death, and victuals and drink are illusion of the sense; for what is death but an eternal sleep? And does not life consist of sleeping and eating?"

3. Plato (427 BC-347 BC): "The soul of man is immortal and imperishable." (The Republic—Book VIII)

4. Plutarch (42-118): "I am whatever was, or is, or will be." (Of Isis and Osiris)

5. Samuel Johnson (1709-1784): "From thee, great God, we spring, to thee we tend,—

Path, motive, guide, original and end." (Motto to the Rambler, No. 7)

6. Thomas Osborne Davis (1814-1845):  
"The starlights of heaven above us shall  
quiver  
As our souls flow in one down eter-  
nity's river."  
(The Welcome, Stanza 3)

7. Philip James Baily (1816-1902):  
"Let each man think himself an act of  
God,  
His mind a thought, his life a breath  
of God;  
And let each try by great thoughts  
and good deeds,  
To show the most of heaven he hath  
in him."  
(Festus. Proem)

8. James Russell Lowell (1819-1891):  
"Great truths are portions of the soul  
of man;  
Great souls are portions of eternity."  
(Sonnet VI)

9. William Dean Howell (1837-1920):  
"Though I move with leaden feet,  
Light itself is not so fleet;  
And before you know me gone  
Eternity and I are one." (Thanksgiving)

10. Rossiter Worthington Raymond  
(1840-1918): "Life is eternal; and love  
is immortal; and death is only a horizon  
and a horizon is nothing save the limit  
of our sight." (A commendatory prayer)

11. Joseph Sweeney (1876-1926):  
"Death's but an open door,  
We move from room to room.  
There is one life, no more  
No dying, and no tomb."  
(Gordon Johnstone)

Regarding the continuing influence of  
ones' life upon the social fabric of the  
future there can be no doubt. Each in-  
dividual affects—probably imperceptibly  
—each other person with whom he may  
come in contact either directly or indi-  
rectly. This transmission of influence is  
as endless as time itself; it becomes a  
part of the eternal life of any given in-  
dividual. This social influence may be  
classified under three heads: (1) It may  
be positive and add to the good in civ-  
ilization; (2) it may be neutral and leave

society unchanged; (3) it may be nega-  
tive and add to the evils of the world.  
Whichever it is and whatever the effect,  
its influences is for eternity and tends  
to determine the type of eternal life  
any given individual may have; it be-  
comes a permanent record in the ar-  
chives of time. Biologically speaking,  
as carriers of heredity traits, the genes  
of today are the living representatives  
and direct descendants of the genes of  
100,000 years ago and the ancestors of  
those of 100,000 years in the future.

As an example of how an individual  
of today may be a physical link be-  
tween the past and the future, let it  
be assumed that a child born today is  
the offspring of two parents born twen-  
ty-five years ago, of four grandparents  
born fifty years ago, of eight great  
grandparents born seventy-five years  
ago, etc. By such reasoning, we must  
conclude that it is possible—even if not  
probable—that the child born today may  
have had a maximum of 4096 direct  
ancestors living about 300 years ago; at  
the same time this child may become  
one of the 4096 ancestors of children  
born 300 years in the future! And so  
the endless stream continues ad infini-  
tum back into the past and forward  
into the future.

## Part II

In view of the preceding philosophy,  
it is evident that any life with char-  
acteristics worthy of perpetuation  
should follow a design calculated to  
preserve and promote—rather than to  
counteract or destroy—those qualities of  
life worthy of preservation. Some peo-  
ple advocate the conservation and trans-  
mission to future generations those  
ideals and values which adult members  
of present society may hold dear; oth-  
ers want indoctrination for a new so-  
ciety; a third group—a middle and more  
dependable group—advocate the incul-  
cation of skills and attitudes by which  
young people will be prepared to re-  
make or revise their own society spir-  
itually and materially as they wish it to  
be instead of being compelled to accept  
a ready-made static and unchangeable

social order. This is what Abraham Lin-  
coln may have had in mind when he  
said: "If we could first know where we  
are and whither we are tending we  
could better judge what to do and how  
to do it."

To achieve this ideal society our edu-  
cational system and all other construc-  
tive social forces must concern them-  
selves with the development of young  
people with positive, constructive, and  
altruistic tendencies. Each one should  
possess a well developed ethical, moral,  
and religious sense and should be cap-  
able of assisting in remaking, democrat-  
ically, his society as it should be instead  
of being compelled to accept and keep  
a ready-made, inherited, static social  
order. This characteristic is of primary  
importance to prevent succeeding gen-  
erations from becoming so absorbed in  
material progress that our entire civil-  
ization topples for want of a moral  
backbone. Moral and ethical concepts  
must not be optional for either an in-  
stitution or an individual; they must be  
present to guide our civilization if it is  
to rise to a higher level and be worthy  
of transmission to unborn generations.  
From the basic idea of brotherhood and  
the belief that all are equally entitled  
to life, liberty, and the pursuit of hap-  
piness, great stores of human energy  
are released to produce material re-  
wards and satisfactions; but these ma-  
terial and economic satisfactions must  
never blind individuals to the fact that  
human power is usually generated by a  
spiritual dynamo.

To develop successfully one's own in-  
herent abilities a person must be inter-  
ested in the welfare of all peoples and  
races; he must recognize the fact of  
human unity—that there is no em-  
balmed, static barrier between the Mon-  
goloid, Negroid, and Caucasoid divisions  
of Homo Sapiens. The one trait which  
has been and is at a premium in the  
evolution of the race is educability—a  
characteristic possessed by all human  
beings. Both science and religion under-  
score the fact of universal brotherhood;  
therefore, a prime responsibility of any  
adult in any position of leadership is to



help the young people of today to understand and appreciate persons who seem slightly different from themselves. We cannot have too many people who have tolerance for traits and opinions which differ from their own. Education—to be worthy of the name—must be a road to tolerance and peace. Being such a highway is one of its major defenses.

Another result of education and other social forces should be to instill a sense of opportunity and responsibility for the improvement, advancement, and dissemination of useful knowledge to all members of all races. Man is a social being, and in a very real sense, his brother's keeper. The denial, at any point, of the social bond between the members or segments of mankind is a step in the direction of disintegration;

each individual is and should be kept a part of the whole.

A fourth positive result of the impact of society should be those vigorous, aggressive qualities which, added together, equal ambition—ambition not to exploit, but to assist in the development in men and women an awareness of the responsibility needed not only in our nation but in the entire world in the search for peace, truth and decency. In this connection these words of John Dewey seem highly significant and descriptive: "The system of liberties that exists at any time is always the system of restraints and controls that exists at the same time. No one can do anything except in relation to what others can do or cannot do. A good law is always and in every way an extension of liberty rather than restriction upon it."

All people of today should be indoctrinated with a philosophy and a vision that great changes and advances are inevitable in the generations immediately ahead—that the human race is not entering into the quiet water of stagnation. Industry, business, and the professions will continue the process of revolutionizing themselves—we hope under the influence and guidance of able, intelligent, educated men and women with faith in themselves and in the future of the human race.

"As it was in the beginning, (it) is now, and ever shall be, world without end." Each person now on earth was, is, and ever shall be "without end"—a thought majestic enough to thrill and to inspire every sane individual to live and to perform at the top of his ability, and in so doing prepare for an immortality on the highest level!

## What Needs To Be Done About Secondary Education?

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This paper deals with the notion that mental discipline should be the goal of secondary education, which is the thesis vehemently defended in a recent book, **Educational Wastelands**, by Dr. Arthur E. Bestor, Professor of History at the University of Illinois.

I shall try to state the main points of his thesis, mostly in his own words, and make comments in passing. As stated above, Bestor thinks education is mental discipline. Also, he stresses democracy in education, and he holds that democracy in education means the same thing as democracy in housing, i.e., equality for all. I consider this a false analogy, unless the author means that a dull pupil is like a moneyless person who needs a house, but I doubt if that is what he means. For butchers, TV

script writers, and truck drivers( his grouping), "schooling which will make them intelligent men is liberal education, not courses in meat handling, script writing, or strength of materials." (P. 70). In commenting on the objectives stated in **Education for American Youth** (Educational Policies Commission of the N.E.A.), the author calls "the idea that the school must meet every need some other agency is failing to meet . . . a preposterous delusion." (P. 75). To his mind, "when every family possesses and can use one (a good library) we have a democratic society" (P. 28). He does not define "a good library," but presumably it would be restricted to such books as literary classics, historical and scientific works; books on philosophy, art, music, etc. I can't imagine even the most literate butcher spending his leisure reading such books.

Mental discipline is not like ancient Gaul which, according to Caesar, was di-

vided into three parts; for, according to Bestor, it consists of four subdivisions, viz., controlled experimentation, mathematical reasoning, historical investigation, and philosophic criticism. The author believes that "for the most part the training in the disciplines of general applicability ought to be complete in the secondary school" (p. 170). "Complete" means that the student has attained a sense of being at home in the subject (P. 171). He opines that in a foreign language this would require at least two years.

This theory is apparently the same as that of John Locke (as well as many others), who in the seventeenth century, in his famous essay, "The Conduct of the Understanding," said that mathematics should be taught, "not so much to make them (students) mathematicians as to make them reasonable creatures." This doctrine of formal discipline implies that reasoning ability will transfer from one subject to others. Will it? For many

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years the questions of incidence and conditions of transfer have been subjected to psychological experimentation. A review of even the more important details would take us too far afield, but I can assert that the experiments in toto give little support to the theory of transfer. Dr. A. M. Jordan's **Educational Psychology** (3d Ed., Holt, 1942), for example, devotes some 60 pages to these matters. One of his final conclusions is that "general principles, ideals, attitudes which are most desirable in life outside the school should pervade instruction within the school; . . . the greatest transfer effects will be produced if instruction in every subject is focused on the present and on actual living" (P. 301). Regarding the experiment of Thorndike, which he considers "the most ambitious study of discipline ever attempted," he points out that dull students made practically no gain in general mental ability from the study of any high school subject for a whole school year while bright students made significant gains and gives this quotation from Thorndike: "If the abler pupils should all study physical education and dramatic art these subjects would seem to make good thinkers." To my mind this is a convincing refutation of Bestor.

In the field of philosophy of education, William H. Kilpatrick (who majored in and taught mathematics in his early career), is now opposed to formal education. He contends that, "we learn what we live."<sup>2</sup>

Perhaps the author suspects that some readers might doubt the ability of dull students to "take it" (to say nothing of liking it), for he asserts that "most of them (dullards) can be brought at a slower pace along the same route" (P. 37). Parenthetically, I am reminded of an incident that occurred years ago during an observation of a junior high school class for backward pupils. When a child answered a

question correctly, the teacher wearily commented, "That is pretty good—for you." Probably less than 10 per cent could measure up to Bestor's standard. I am forced to conclude that he is either unfamiliar with or unsympathetic concerning widely used plans of adjustment to individual differences.

To measure pupil achievement he favors "comprehensive essay-type examinations as the basic means of evaluating educational preparation and measuring educational achievement" (P. 148). Also, the examination should reveal "how much a student knows and what he is capable of doing with his knowledge." (P. 149). Again, the author is either unfamiliar with or unsympathetic concerning good practices in measurement.

The author hasn't much use for progressive education. Perhaps I am wrong in thinking there isn't much of it in high schools today, but let that pass. He thinks that progressive methods were good some years ago, but they have now degenerated into "the monstrosity of regressive education." It is asserted that "the men who drafted our Constitution were not trained for the task by 'field trips' to the mayor's office. They were endowed with the wisdom requisite for founding a new nation by liberal education" (P. 64). Two comments: a person has to have fairly superior ability in order to acquire a liberal education, and Benjamin Franklin (and maybe others of the Founding Fathers) did not have the benefit of much schooling. Also, such an argument for disciplinary education of the throngs in today's high schools is far-fetched, to say the least.

After all, the best way to evaluate progressive education is by experimentation. Wrightstone<sup>3</sup> conducted an experiment employing the best available techniques, and the result was that in progressive schools the achievement was better than, or at least equal to, that in old-type schools in the basic

junior high school subjects; in senior high schools in algebra (2 levels), geometry, and Latin the same was true, with one exception (intermediate algebra). More important, I think, was the fact that in tests of beliefs, adjustment, and honesty, and ratings of initiative, responsibility, curiosity, and criticism, the progressive schools were superior.

Bestor blames most of the shortcomings of education on professors of pedagogy, who "contemptuously dismiss as impertinent and incompetent the educational views of colleagues in other departments" (P. 42). I shall not argue at length about this point. Suffice to say that for many years I have been interested in several academic fields and without prejudice I feel that the educationists as a class have been more alert than the academicians to student needs and the necessity of keeping education in step with social progress. Be that as it may, the real issue is not that of the pot calling the kettle black but of cooperating and advancing under the leadership of men whose ideas win acceptance in the give and take of the market place, regardless of their field of specialization.

Also, the author seems to ignore the fact that society itself has perhaps a predominant influence on the school. The real world of industry and finance speaks louder than educators on the adequacy of disciplinary education. True, many outstanding men in these fields have a background of liberal education, but by and large, big corporations want competent technicians and scientists, regardless of their background of liberal education. I have heard much along this line from two young engineers in my own family.

The book seems to regard intellectual discipline as the sole value in education and thus ignores moral values, attitudes, and appreciations. Here, I think, the outlook is narrow. To me, a well educated person is one who, among other things is well-informed, a clear thinker, and more important, one with zeal to serve his fellow men and ability to do things.

<sup>2</sup>W. H. Kilpatrick, "What We Want of Our Teachers," **New Republic**, 12:11-14, December 21, 1953.

<sup>3</sup>J. W. Wrightstone, "Achievement in Conventional and Progressive Schools," **Progressive Education**, Vol. 13, May, 1936.

Furthermore, the author seems to misunderstand the needs of that considerable percentage of youth who have neither the ability nor the taste for disciplinary education. (The same situation prevailed when the Founding Fathers were at work, except that then the masses were educated to a great extent by the home, the apprentice system, etc.). In case of those who today will become butchers, script-writers, truck drivers, etc., I do not think the door should be closed to any one, who even mistakenly (like the young man who thought the letters P.C. which he saw in his dream were a call to preach Christ instead of to plow corn) wants to drink from the Pirean spring. However, good facilities for training youth for citizenship and vocation are necessary.

I must confess that I am in the same state of mind as the King of Siam in the musical show, "The King and I." The motivation of the author of this book

is a "puzzlement," unless he wanted to stir things up. Years ago I heard a well-know health crusader in Indiana tell what he had learned from his experience in lecturing on topics relating to health and hygiene. He stated that at the start he spoke mildly about the hygienic and aesthetic values of bathing, with the result that his audiences went to sleep on him. Later, he told the audiences they stank, whereupon they angrily disagreed. I feel sure Dr. Bestor would agree with many of the points I have made. Probably he is agitated about the curriculum-making practices in Illinois, to which he specifically devotes about half of his book.

To teachers and supervisors of instruction, I might point out that all well-know method formulations including Hebart's famous four steps (later expanded by Charles and Frank McMurray into the five steps of inductive teaching), Henry C. Morrison's steps of

science-type teaching, Dewey's steps in reflective thinking are all fundamentally alike. Even Bestor's four types of discipline listed earlier in this paper are all based on the fundamental process of reasoning, with slightly different emphasis and application in each case. If teachers make diligent efforts to explain things clearly, use concrete illustrations in teaching abstract terms and principles, they will be on the right track. They can do no better than emulate Jesus' method of teaching by parables. However, ideals, social attitudes, aesthetic appreciation, and many-sided interests (Herbart's term) require radically different methods. Here the stress should be on emotional participation in real or vicarious experiences. Likewise, there are appropriate methods for memorization and learning skills. Mental life and experience are unified, however, and one can't carry on thinking without emotional coloring nor effective practice without thought.

## "The Impact of Population Changes on Our Citizenship Teaching"

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An address delivered by Mr. Bartlett at the Social Studies Section of the Indiana State Teachers Association, 1953.

Our population is growing at the rate of five people every minute! During the next forty minutes, by the law of averages, we will acquire about 800 new Americans. Most of them will be born as American citizens because population increases owed to immigration from foreign lands is down to about 61½ percent of our annual total growth—half of what growth from immigration was in 1900.

Two factors are primarily responsible for this growth in our population rate: (1) the Stork (who always flies further and faster on the favorable winds of prosperity) (2) and such improving health standards and care that fewer babies die and older people live longer. By now there are more than

160 million of us, making us the fourth largest nation in terms of population. Only China, India, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, in that order, have more people than we have.

Our population growth since 1947 has been the fastest since the turn of the century. A rise in the birth rate had already become evident in 1937; then came a spurt at the beginning of World War II, followed by an even greater spurt in the rate at its close. Since then, learned studies have forecast, a decline, but it hasn't taken place, as anyone who walks on a sunny street can tell you. Or as any teachers knows. You may know the story about an elementary school just completed in Georgia. The townspeople turned out in full force to look it over and see if it had all the new features of the school in the next town. They brought their children

along. One mother, a youngster on each arm, was greeted by the principal. "I see you're introducing some of the future students to their new school." "Sure," she said, "you build 'em, we'll fill 'em."

Our total population by now of 160 million or more consists of what? Who are we in terms of age groups? Where are we in terms of states? And do we tend to move around or do we stay put? Some answers to these questions have considerable implication for education in general and hold particular overtones for citizenship education:

1. The proportion of people 65 years of age and over to the total population is increasing much more rapidly than is the total population. . . . In 1950 there were 11 million people 65 and over and estimates indicate that there will



be 18,500,000 people in this age group by 1980 . . . or 12 out of every hundred Americans. The rising generation is going to be responsible for educating a large mass of children on the one hand and caring for a growing number of older people on the other. Moreover, by 1960 older people will comprise three eighths of the electorate . . . only seven years from now. . . . Is it conceivable that pressure groups from this large segment of the population may take charge of American education in terms of dollars spent at a time when enrollments in our secondary schools will be swelled by the rising birthrates of the post-war years? Some of you remember the clamor for the Townsend Plan during the depression years. (It popped up again in the N.Y.C. newspapers October 12.) Does this suggest the need now for some particular adult education on the ground that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure?

2. Our population has not only grown; it has shifted. Between 1940 and 1950 our west coast population swelled by 49 percent, the only region, by the way, where men outnumber women; our Mountain states grew by 22 percent, or more than one fifth; right here in Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin, you have a jump of 14 percent. Even New York and New England have experienced a growth—ten percent. In the area west of the Mississippi River and reaching from Missouri across Texas an increase of 11 percent has been toted up. Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi together show a population rise of seven percent. And the Middle Atlantic and southern coastal states grew by 19 percent, almost a fifth. There has been a four percent increase in the northern plains states.

These trends and other aspects of population trends will be discussed in greater detail. Just now we are concerned only with the broad pattern.

Rural population totals have dropped 12 percent; but this does not mean that

Americans are moving into urban communities at the rate generally assumed. The fact is that suburban populations have been growing at twice the rate of city populations. Growth of so many such suburban communities alone has a significant implication for schools in general and citizenship education especially. Consider the commuter who leaves his home in the morning and gets back there after the day's work in some other town or city. Just what civic loyalties is he apt to have? Consider, too, the growing numbers of more self-sufficient communities that are a consequence in part of industrial dispersal. These communities are much more cosmopolitan than suburban towns on the periphery of our larger cities, containing as they do, residents from all kinds and levels of occupations.

Now, have funds allotted for free public education reflected, at least in part, these population trends of the past decade or more? Let's look at a few sets of figures,\* starting with your own state;

In 1939-40	Indiana spent per pupil	\$ 86.13,	in 1949-50,	\$235.49
"	Illinois	" 115.19	"	258.46
"	Michigan	" 92.38	"	219.55
"	Ohio	" 96.37	"	202.12
"	California	" 141.93	"	263.51
"	New York	" 156.86	"	295.02
"	Mississippi	" 30.72	"	76.69

\*Statistics of State School Systems, 1949-50, FSA, P 23.

Of course, inflation must be considered in weighing the true significance of these figures whose greatest increases have been for instruction and such auxiliary services as lunches and transportation.

There are a few more facts we need to make our population trends picture clearer: About one fourth of all children aged seven to thirteen in the 1940's moved from at least one county to another; the migration of so-called underprivileged groups (always among the first to drop out of school) has been the greatest from out of the South into

the North Central and Northern States. There have been some extreme cases. Take New York City where four per cent of the population now consists of Puerto Rican stock, the greater portion being non-English in speech; and a Negro population of ten percent.

Now let's move closer to this population trends picture. Estimates indicate that our population in seven years will be about 175 million, that by the close of **this year alone** about four million babies will have been born! Every two out of three of these infants will be born into families that already have one or more children. So it seems that the American family is tending to be somewhat larger than for some time past. Writers in Fortune Magazine last August could not explain this phenomenon, all they could do was to ask "Is it caused by widespread restiveness, or by a new optimism and confidence based on a definite rise in well-being?" In any case, the comparatively high birth rate of these comparatively new family units is unlikely to drop unless there is

a severe depression. The elementary school enrollment will therefore remain high.

Uncertainty as to the cause of high birth rates may bother manufacturers of baby carriages, as they forecast their production programs for the coming months; but we in the schools can plan more precisely: After all, not until several years after we see the statistics of birth rates do we see these children entering our classes. Moreover, these statistics can tell us just when an exceptionally large number of children will be entering a given grade in the ele-



mentary school, or junior-senior high school.

Right now all sorts of attendance records are being broken. There are more school-age children than ever; and a greater proportion of them are entering the schools, where they stay longer. And what are we doing about it? Said Fred Hechinger in the *Saturday Review of Literature* on September 12 of this year: "Perhaps the most predictable, the most avertable, and the least prevented of all crises is the present one in the elementary schools—except perhaps for the one of the day after tomorrow which is shaping up in the high schools . . . the flood which will inundate the high schools in about two or three years from now. . . ."

We ARE doing something about this drastic situation; but not enough. We need about 350,000 classrooms more than we have. School building construction is breaking records but it cannot keep pace with the needs. Right here in your own state you haven't adequate space for 152,000 elementary school students. Far too few young people are being prepared for teaching. . . . We could use about 72,000 more teachers right now. Without them we overload you and overcrowd our classrooms and we try to limp along with the first aid that substandard teachers provide instead of the attention that only qualified teachers are equipped to give.

Despite these negative factors, all together much has been done; school taxes have gone up and the taxpayers are doing more than ever before to support free schools; but in six years we are going to have six million more students in our high schools than we have now . . . that's a lot of boys and girls . . . an increase of almost 100 percent over present high-school enrollments.

Now what does all this mean in terms of students and teachers? It seems to say that: (1) You are going to have more students; (2) They are apt to be less socially homogeneous than heretofore because their backgrounds will be more

varied than ever; (3) They are likely to stay in school longer . . . the proportion who will drop out at the eighth and ninth grade levels is apt to be lower; (4) There are going to be too few teachers; (5) You may have more classes to teach or you may have larger classes to teach.

With larger classes there may be a tendency to revert to old-style recitations with their almost complete dependence upon the textbook. Yet large classes, in themselves, may not be necessarily more difficult to manage than smaller classes; for we are learning considerably more about techniques for managing larger classes. One set of such techniques goes by the fancy name of "group dynamics" but the techniques are older than the name. Group techniques have special significance and utility for citizenship education where in the past we have tended to stress content at the expense of skills and attitudes.

We should be naive to assume that group techniques can solve all our classroom teaching problems. Such techniques are not panaceas; neither are "gimmicks" or devices such as situation exercises and "stimulators," despite their apparent success in armed services orientation programs these past three years. But some teachers have been reluctant to adopt group procedures, possibly because they feel insecure when delegating authority and responsibility. Others do lip service to group processes but actually hold to accustomed authoritarian practices. Their students sense this and know their plans and suggestions would be like seed strewn on the wind. These teachers may have been the daughters who asked, "Mother, May I go out to swim?" The answer is familiar, "Yes, my darling daughter, hang your clothes on a hickory limb, but don't go near the water." But look at the large office or plant . . . there people work as groups (often there are people of high-school age numbered among them). These people work as teams or crews, each member doing his job as

part of the unit's total responsibility. The group method of operation is certainly a normal one. In classrooms, however, pupils gain confidence in it only when brought to it by a teacher who has faith in it. Otherwise they become lost in a fog of confusion in a sea of frustration, then they clamor for their pilot. **How are they going to learn to get along on their own?**

The citizen who knows how to handle himself in a group discussion knows how to take part in shaping public policy . . . and is there any more important job than that in civic life? It is up to the school to do its job helping young citizens learn how to use group techniques in achieving goals. Group discussion grows best in the fruitful soil of group planning. And it is with group planning that the classroom teacher can make an obvious and needed approach to citizenship education.

Group planning helps to overcome student apathy and disinterest, it is good motivation, and it is natural. Group procedures, of course, offer wide opportunity of adaptation to individual differences, with consequent improvement in individual adjustment—a difficult problem for migrants. Don't high-school students normally operate in groups? Moreover, it is important to bear in mind that intellectual capacity is not a measure of a student's ability to do team-work. The group technique is therefore one well adapted to large classes . . . students share with you in deciding not what is to be studied (that decision is yours or may have been made for you by syllabus requirements. . . . I taught "Regents" classes in high-school American history in New York State for 18 years). No, students do not decide what is to be studied but jointly with you they can decide **who** is to do **what**.

Now all this raises the question of values. We no longer evaluate outcomes of our class activities in terms of subject matter alone. Instead, we constantly say to ourselves "Just what are we trying to do?" Consequently our con-

cern for evaluation has become rather less in terms of subject matter and considerably more in terms of skills and attitudes . . . not as easy to test, perhaps. Fortunately we are learning more about evaluating skills and attitudes. Consider, for example, the outcomes of group procedures, with respect to pupil growth in objectivity in these terms:

1. Develop early in the cooperative planning stage a set of goals and ask the students to suggest modifications to this tentative plan; how certain activities may be planned; what questions can best be answered through which resources; what responsibilities are to be delegated to whom.

2. As the program develops refer frequently to this set of goals so that students see whether or not they are headed properly and that they remain identified with their purposes.

3. Occasionally re-examine these goals with the class which cooperatively adjusts them in the light of experience, time, resources.

4. Refer the class to these goals when the planned program is completed in terms of "Did we accomplish what we set out to do?" "How could we do a better job another time?"

Isn't this evaluation . . . evaluation with a prime purpose? Learning objectivity in planning and thinking is certainly a competence needed by citizens in a democratic society.

Let's look at another aspect of population trends and citizenship education. A few factors need be touched on concerning the effect of migration upon the migrant.

1. He becomes comparatively individualistic because his links with his accustomed stable social patterns are parted.

2. The longer the migrant is disconnected from a given community behavior pattern the more individualistic he becomes.

3. The migrant perceives, as he migrates, considerable deviation from the behavior pattern he had once accepted as "right"; he sees these deviations apparently accepted, so his acceptance of his primary patterns of social behavior diminishes progressively.

How bewildering this change of values may be to the youngster, this shift from a stable behavior pattern to a new one than may include elements perhaps taboo in his primary environment. And it may be no less confusing to his parents, especially if the family unit comes from an underprivileged group which characteristically is not readily absorbed socially in its new environment.

So the informal social control which directs the behavior of the typically homogeneous community is lacking. Delinquency is a possibility among children from such families who probably live in a periphery of the community. We should recall, however, that neither juvenile delinquency nor crime rates may be attributed to any individual because of race, nationality, or intelligence. What **does** account for these rates is the breakdown or maybe virtual absence of social conditions that maintain local behavior norms. And migration contributes to such change in social conditions.

Lack of such neighborly orientation to local mores (or be realistic and call it lack of acceptance in many situations owing to racial or religious intolerance) presents a definite problem in citizenship education. This lack has a corollary—a search for status. Lack of status in itself, contributes to juvenile delinquency. What, then can schools do to provide wider acceptance of migrating youngsters, what can be done to provide many of them with a status needed? There may be quite a tendency to exclude the less-privileged students from wide participation in citizenship-building activities in our high schools. Teachers tend to restrict opportunities in extra-curricular activities (should I have said

"co-curricular"?) to students who perform well. This practice often eliminates students from less privileged groups. Students from less-privileged segments of the population likewise seem to have little chance of participating in student government, although there are always exceptions. If these tendencies are marked, schools are missing out on an important phase of citizenship education.

We have been looking at some ramifications of citizenship education and migration under a magnifying glass, as if that migration into our communities were our sole concern. But that is not enough. We are concerned not only with young people coming to our communities; we are also concerned with those who are going out. Migration of young people from our communities to other communities poses a problem, for a basic aspect of citizenship education in a mobile society is a development of an ability to adjust to the changed behavior environment encountered. Without this ability we are in difficulty as social disorganization is a by-product of migration. We must learn as individuals and communities to accept this fact and to deal with it comprehensively. Moreover, there are ramifications of the problem that extend into the realm of vocational guidance, into questions regarding the local labor market, and utilization of material resources.

So much for these rather broad observations. Now let's get closer to the subject-matter of the social studies. Let's look at the social studies program as it is most widely organized—I use the terminology and sequences cited by the U. S. Office of Education: Grade 7, Geography; Grade 8, American History; Grade 9, civics and citizenship; Grade 10, world history; Grade 11, American History; Grade 12, Problems of Democracy, government, economics. Just why have we hit upon that combination of courses, often labeled "social studies." Is it, among other values, the proper program to assure effective citizenship?



Has it done this job? Are we satisfied with the job the schools are doing in turning out effective citizens? And is it going to the job that lies ahead in new communities, peripheral to our large centers; is it going to prove any more functional when we have fewer teachers per pupil than heretofore? What, in short, should we do about our presentation of the subject matter of social studies to this mobile population of young people of today who will be tomorrow our civic leaders and followers?

We have been teaching American History Civics and Government in our schools for years, and the evidence is that it is being taught to more boys and girls now than it ever was taught before. (Calif. Soc. Ed. p. 257\*) More boys and girls than ever before, with the best textbooks they have ever had and with better trained teachers than ever before, are being thoughtfully and carefully taught the origins and principles of American liberty. Why? Newton Edwards tells us in these words:

Moral commitments are the measure of men and of nations . . . a body of core values, a wide community of ideas and ideals . . . gives our society its basic pattern . . . holds it together, and prevents it from becoming a mere aggregation of individuals without purpose and without goal . . . we must weave these core values into the personality structure of the members of each succeeding generation. It is these values that give the individual a map of life, a sense of direction, a standard by which he may judge men and nations.\*

I think that is what we mean when we speak of citizenship education's purpose. But is vicarious experience, as learned from the textbook enough to do the job? Will this vicarious experience be sufficient to teach these boys and girls—the people who tomorrow will shape public policy, the people who will execute it, the people who pass up

on it—the kind of civic competence they ought to have? I doubt it.

The football coach does not rely upon a textbook and class meetings to teach his squad how to play as a team . . . the practical experience gained in scrimmages and games make the seasoned player. Girls learn how to sew by actually sewing; you learn to swim by swimming; you learn to ride a bike only after getting on it and practicing. Science teachers have known that for years; that's why they have the laboratories where students actually carry out experiments. But where is the laboratory of the social sciences? It is the community—the classroom, sometimes; the school sometimes; the community outside the school sometimes. And it is applied knowledge that is used in these social science laboratories. It is this kind of purposeful activity that the Citizenship Education Project advocates in its program—purposeful activity that utilizes information contained in history or civics and government or economics textbooks and other reference materials in digging into real problems in the community and using the skills of the social studies and language arts in seeking solutions to these problems.

If the problem is solved, well fine . . . but solution is not the aim. Instead, the aim is to teach civic competence through actual experience. By producing real and rememberable experiences related to the materials discussed in the textbooks and in other materials, the student sees American principle and tradition at work in his own community.

Perhaps in the August *Reader's Digest* 9 in an article "Bold New Program in Our Schools" you read of a few such experiences in which boys and girls learned the real facts of civic life by means of a technique called the Laboratory Practice which the Citizenship Education Project has developed. Does the technique work? Apparently. Over 500 school systems in 37 states think so and have adopted this procedure in collaboration with the Citizenship Education Project. Your next-door neighbor, the State of Illinois, has woven it into its Illinois Curriculum Program. Does the

activity smother the subject matter? Apparently not, for in comparable classes tested in controlled situations the classes that carried out the Laboratory Practices tested as high and higher in subject-matter than those that followed more commonly used methods of classroom instruction. How do you account for the improvement? Apparently boys and girls who could see a real reason for wanting to know, dig out more information and it seems to stick longer. Here is a technique that calls for group procedure, that works with groups both large and small, that has definite criteria, that motivates students whether they are slow learners or of college calibre.

With the increased enrollments of more heterogeneous groups than ever, there is greater need for more flexible and varied methods of instruction. The Laboratory Practice technique provides both flexibility and variation. The technique is therefore being introduced into more and more teacher-training methods courses. In states where the Citizenship Education Project program is being adopted by state officials; these officials are setting up in-service training programs of some kind to improve citizenship education. Students who learn by means of this Laboratory Practice technique which augments traditional methods, will have not only better understanding of the core values and principles inherent in the American tradition; they will also have learned the "know how" of civic action, a composite skill they will find useful in the ever-growing numbers of cosmopolitan suburban communities whose growth is double that of city population growth. They will use them in the older communities into which they will move; those who stay at home will use them—all to the same end—active citizenship.

Said Pericles of Athens:

**We regard a man who takes no interest in public affairs, not as harmless, but as a useless character; and if few of us are originators, we are all sound judges of policy.**

\*Phi Delta Kappa, June, 1953, P. 392.



# THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

VOLUME INDEX

Volume XXV October, 1953—May, 1954 Nos. 1-6

## TITLE INDEX . . .

- "A Deservd Privilege," Roach, James, December, 1953, No. 3, p.34.
- "A Look Ahead in Education," Elder, Harry E., October, 1953, No. 1, p. 2.
- "A Study of Teacher Recruitment Practices in Indiana High Schools," Crum, Clyde E., March, 1954, No. 5, p. 71.
- "An Exerience to Remember," Prast, Phyllis, March, 1954, No. 5, p. 70.
- "An Investigation of High School Cadet Teaching Experiences of Students at I.S.T.C.," Kish, Mary Margaret, March, 1954, No. 5, p. 76.
- "Book Reviews," October, 1953, No. 1, p. 14; November, 1953, No. 2, p. 27; December, 1953, No. 3, p. 39.
- "Cadet Teachers in Action," Clarke, Marie, March, 1954, No. 5, p. 68.
- "Cadet Teachers in Indiana," Young, Wilbur, March, 1954, No. 5, p. 62.
- "Cadet Teaching in the Elkhart Public Schools," McAllister, Anne, March, 1954, No. 5, p. 62.
- "Cadet Teaching in the Indianapolis Public Schools," Guild, Florence C., March, 1954, No. 5, p. 66.
- "Cadet Teaching in the Secondary Schools," Editorial, March, 1954, No. 5.
- "Digest of Theses," November, 1953, No. 2, p. 22.
- "Experiences in Cadet Teaching in Vincennes, Indiana," Decker, Nancy, March, 1954, No. 5, p. 69.
- "First Experiences in Cadet Teaching Practice," Dunlap, Patsy, March, 1954, No. 5, p. 69.
- "Functions and Responsibilities of the Principal in the Cadet Teaching Program as it Operates in Muncie,"

Chastain, Loren, March, 1954, No. 5, p. 71.

"Guidance at John Greer High School," Kramer, Harry E., May, 1954, No. 6, pm. 82.

"Guidance in Terre Haute City Schols," Pike, Earl, May, 1954, No. 6, p. 85.

"Guidance Program in the Isaac C. Elston Senior High School, Michigan City, Indiana," Giffel, William J., May, 1954, No. 6, p.82.

"Guidance Services in Elkhart High School," Russell, Audrey, and McHargue, Glen W., May, 1954, No. 6, p. 88.

"Guidance Services in the Public Schools," Ederle, Helen, May, 1954, No. 6, Editorial.

"Orientation Has Meaning—If," Freeman, Ben X., May, 1954, No. 6, p.86.

"Orientation Tests and Freshman Scholarship," Hardaway, Charles W., October, 1953, No. 1, p. 10.

"Parent-Pupil Orientation and Adjustment As It Has Functioned in Chrisman, Illinois," Newman, Pauline, May, 1954, No. 6, p. 84.

"Preparing Democratic Leaders in College," Baisler, A. W., December, 1953, No. 3, p. 31.

"Promise To Myself," Steffen, Carmen, December, 1953, N. 3, p. 33.

"Research—A Teaching Procedure," Hardaway, Charles, November, 1953, No. 2, Editorial.

"Sixth Indiana Workshop on Teacher Education," Progress Report Number Six, May, 1954, No. 6, p. 89.

"Teacher Recruitment—A Must," Holmstedt, Raleigh W., Editorial, October, 1953, No. 1.

"Teaching and Research," Shannon, J. R., November, 1953, No. 2, p.20.

"Teaching Exloration in Decatur Schools," Connard, Elizabeth, March, 1954, No. 5, p. 78.

"Teaching Student Teachers in Interviewing," Jorgensen, Margaret O. and Lueck, William R., December, 1953, No. 3, p. 30.

"The Citizenship Education Project at Indiana State Teachers College: A Progress Report," Clark, Elmer J., November, 1953, No. 2, p. 21.

"The Clear Lake Story," Hammermann, Don, October, 1953, No. 1, p. 5.

"The Happy Ending," Crabb, A.L., October, 1953, No. 1, p. 6.

"The License Status of a Sampling of Social Studies Teachers in Indiana," November, 1953, No. 2, p. 18.

"Three Points of View," Hardaway, Charles, December, 1953, No. 3, Editorial.

"Values In The Teaching of Foreign Languages," Baker, Nina Kannmacher, December, 1953, No. 3, p. 33.

"Vocational Building Trades," Bennett, Harold W., May, 1954, No. 6, p. 87.

"Volume Index of Volume XXIV," October, 1952—May-June, 1953, Nos. 1-6, October, 1953, No. 1, p. 11.

"Youth's Greener Pastures," Furry, C. L., May, 1954, No. 6, p. 83.

## AUTHOR INDEX . . .

- Baisler, A. W., "Preparing Democratic Leaders in College," Decemebr, 1953, No. 3, p. 31.
- Baker, Nina, "Values in the Teaching of Foreign Languages," December, 1953, No. 3, p. 33.
- Bennett, Harold W., "Vocational Building Trades," May, 1954, No. 6, p. 87.
- Booker, Ivan A., "Greetings To President Holmstedt," January, 1954, No. 4.
- Chastain, Loren, "Functions and Responsibilities of the Principal in the Cadet Teaching Program as it Oper-

- ates in Muncie," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 71.
- Clark, Elmer J., "The Citizenship Education Project at Indiana State Teachers College: A Progress Report," November, 1953, No. 2, p. 21.
- Clark, Marie, "Cadet Teachers in Action," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 68.
- Connard, Elizabeth, "Teaching Exploration in Decatur Schools," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 78.
- Crabb, A. L., "The Happy Ending," October, 1953, No. 1, p. 6.
- Crum, Clyde E., "A Study of Teacher Recruitment Practices in Indiana High Schools," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 71.
- Decker, Nancy, "Experiences in Cadet Teaching in Vincennes, Indiana," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 69.
- Dunlap, Patsy, "First Experiences in Cadet Teaching Practice," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 69.
- Ederle, Helen, "Guidance Services in the Public Schools," May, 1954, No. 6, Editorial.
- Elder, Harry E., "A Look Ahead in Education," October, 1953, No. 1, p. 2.
- Emens, John Richard, "Greetings to President Holmstedt," January, 1954, No. 4.
- Freeman, Ben X., "Orientation Has Meaning—If," May, 1954, No. 6, p. 86.
- Furry, C. L., "Youth's Greener Pastures," May, 1954, No. 6, p. 83.
- Giffel, William J., "Guidance Program in the Isaac C. Elston Senior High School, Michigan City, Indiana," May, 1954, No. 6, p. 82.
- Grinnell, John E., "Greetings to President Holmstedt," January, 1954, No. 4.
- Guild, Florence C., "Cadet Teaching in the Indianapolis Public Schools," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 66.
- Hammerman, Don, "The Clear Lake Story," October, 1953, No. 1, p. 5.
- Hardaway, Charles W., "Orientation Tests and Freshman Scholarship," October, 1953, No. 1, p. 10; "Research—A Teaching Procedure," November, 1953, No. 2, Editorial; "Three Points of View," December, 1953, No. 3, Editorial.
- Holmstedt, Raleigh W., "Teacher Recruitment—A Must," October, 1953, No. 1, Editorial; "The Inaugural Address," January, 1954, No. 4.
- Hovde, Frederick, L., "Greetings to President Holmstedt," January, 1954, No. 4.
- Johnson, B. W., "Greetings to President Holmstedt," January, 1954, No. 4.
- Jorgensen, Margaret O., "Teaching Student Teachers In Interviewing," December, 1953, No. 3, p. 30.
- Kish, Mary, "An Investigation of High School Cadet Teaching Experience of Students at I.S.T.C.," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 76.
- Kramer, Harry E., "Guidance at John Greer High School," May, 1954, No. 6, p. 82.
- Lueck, William R., "Teaching Student Teachers In Interviewing," December, 1953, No. 3, p. 30.
- McAllister, Anne, "Cadet Teaching in the Elkhart Public Schools," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 62.
- Newman, Pauline, "Parent-Pupil Orientation and Adjustment As It Has Functioned in Chrisman, Illinois," May, 1954, No. 6, p. 84.
- Pike, Earl, "Guidance in Terre Haute City Schools," May, 1954, No. 6, p. 85.
- Prast, Phyllis, "An Experience to Remember," March, 1954, No. 5, p. 70.
- Puckett, William Orville, "Greetings to President Holmstedt," January, 1954, No. 4.
- Russell, Audrey, and McHargue, Glen W., "Guidance Services in Elkhart High Schools," May, 1954, No. 6, p. 88.
- Shannon, J. R., "Teaching and Research," November, 1953, No. 2, p. 20.
- Steffen, Carmen, "Promise To Myself," December, 1953, No. 3, p. 33.
- Varro, Louise, "Greetings to President Holmstedt," January, 1954, No. 4.
- Watson, Ralph W., "Greeting to President Holmstedt," January, 1954, No. 4.



# Indiana State's 1954-55 Basketball Schedule



Coach John L. Longfellow

HOME	AWAY
Nov. 29 — Belmont	Nov. 24 — Concordia at St. Louis, Mo.
Dec. 2 — Franklin	Dec. 11 — *DePauw at Greencastle
Dec. 9 — *St. Joseph's	Dec. 17 — Beloit at Beloit, Wisc.
Dec. 14 — Eastern Illinois	Jan. 8 — Lawrence Tech at Detroit, Mich.
Jan. 6 — *Evansville	Jan. 20 — Eastern Illinois at Charleston, Ill.
Jan. 13 — *Butler	Jan. 22 — *Valparaiso at Valparaiso
Jan. 15 — *Ball State	Jan. 29 — *Ball State at Muncie
Feb. 5 — *DePauw	Feb. 3 — *St. Joseph's at Rensselaer
Feb. 9 — *Valparaiso	Feb. 12 — *Butler at Indianapolis
Feb. 19 — Washington of St. Louis	Feb. 17 — *Evansville at Evansville

\*Indiana Collegiate Conference games.

Tickets may be secured by writing to Paul Wolfe, Ticket Manager,  
Indiana State Athletic Department.

# *Dates For Your Calendar*

## **College Calendar . . .**

1955 Winter Quarter - January 3 - March 18

1955 Spring Quarter - March 22 - June 10

First Summer Term, 1955 - June 13 - July 15

Second Summer Term, 1955 - July 18 - August 19

## **1955 Convocation Schedule . . .**

January 12, "Gondar" - Color film presented by Peter and Mercia Ryainer

January 26, Student Council

February 16, "Knickerbockers" - vocal ensemble

March 30, Emily Kimbrough - "Parents are So Embarrassing"

April 16, Hal Linker - color film on "Pakistan"

April 20, Phi Mu Alpha Sinfonia and Sigma Alpha Iota, honorary music fraternities

May 4, High School Music Group

May 18. Honor Day

The general public is invited to attend the convocations without charge. They will be at 10:00 a.m. in the college's Student Union Auditorium.

## **Sycamore Players Present . . .**

"Bernadine," comedy by Mary Chase, Pulitzer Prize winner and author of "Harvey." Directed by Mrs. Robert W. Masters, November 17-20.

"Thunder Book," by Robert Adrey. Directed by Charles Watson, January 26-29

"The Frogs," by Aristophanes. Directed by Mrs. Ruth Nees, April 13-16.

Single play or season tickets may be secured by writing:  
Sycamore Players, Indiana State Teachers College.

*Annual High School Senior Day, April 1, 1955*